

Topical Medications

Bradley S. Galer

BASIC INFORMATION

Topical medications (Table 87-1) are applied directly on the painful body area, where they penetrate the skin. A topical medication's site of activity is in the peripheral tissues, including soft tissue and peripheral nerve, directly underlying the site of application. Topical drugs, formulated as a gel, cream, liquid, or patch, should not produce any clinically significant systemic drug concentration.

Transdermal medications, on the other hand, are also applied directly to the skin, but the site of drug application can be distant from the area of pain (currently available transdermal drugs include fentanyl and clonidine). Transdermal drugs' sites of activity are not local but via a systemic effect. The medication of transdermal delivery systems is typically contained in a pooled reservoir within a patch, which is designed to push drug directly into the bloodstream. Therefore, unlike topical medication patches, a transdermal patch cannot be cut into different sizes.

Therefore, the key difference between topical and transdermal drug delivery systems is that a topical medication does not result in any clinically meaningful blood levels, whereas a transdermal drug must result in clinically effective serum concentrations for its clinical effect.

History

Applying medicinal substances directly on the skin is likely one of the oldest routes of administration. Ancient cultures ground herbs and plants into pastes for medical uses, including the treatment of pain. Over the past century, many tonics, gels, salves, and lotions have been sold as over-the-counter remedies for pain, although most have little to no scientific study to back their claims (e.g., "snake oils"). Many of these older topical medicinal products may in fact act only as counterirritants—that is, they produce a mild to moderate noxious stimulus that then suppresses the perception of the pain.

Only in the past few decades has the pharmaceutical industry begun to develop topical drugs for the treatment of pain with the aim of producing products with proven efficacy. However, even at the time of this writing, the commercial availability of topical pain medication with controlled clinical trial evidence of efficacy remains sparse. Yet, much development and clinical trial study are currently under way, with the promise of safe and effective topical drugs for the treatment of many acute and chronic painful conditions.

Theoretical Bases

Mechanisms of Action

Because topical drugs, by definition, must act locally on dysfunctional or damaged soft tissues or peripheral nerves, all abnormal pathophysiologic events within the periphery that generate or maintain pain are potential targets for these medications. In acute pain syndromes and arthritic conditions, topical drugs may play a role in reducing the inflammatory response and concurrent sensitization of nociceptors. In chronic

neuropathic pain, abnormal neuronal activity, abnormal impulse generation secondary to sodium channels or α -adrenergic receptors is a factor, as is the ongoing neurogenic inflammatory response.

Clinical Advantages

Theoretically, topical drugs' activity should be independent of pain generation, unlike oral and other systemic agents that need to enter the bloodstream before they arrive at the site of action. Therefore, because topical drugs do not achieve any clinically significant serum levels, adverse effects are limited to those produced by local reaction, such as skin rash. Most of the currently prescribed oral and transdermal medications for pain, both acute and chronic, are hampered by systemic side effects. With nontopical agents, it is necessary to titrate the dosage to effect, either pain relief or a tolerable side effect; unfortunately, the latter often occurs, leading to an aborted drug trial and the patient still suffering from pain.

Another advantage to topical agents is the lack of drug interactions, again due to their lack of systemic effect. The potential for drug-drug interactions is common in patients with chronic painful conditions, such as arthritis or postherpetic neuralgia (PHN), and in patients suffering from painful neuropathies, such as diabetic neuropathy and immunodeficiency virus (HIV) patients.

When treating chronic pain conditions, topical agents require slowly titrating the dose until pain relief or intolerable side effects are reported. This is a time-consuming procedure that may take weeks. The time to a noted effect with topical agents, or the time to a tolerable side effect, is usually on the order of days. Thus, yet another advantage of topical drugs is the significant amount of time saved by titrating the dose over several weeks or more.

An additional important advantage of topical agents is ease of use. Patients either need to apply a liquid or cream several times a day or, with some preparations, once or twice a day.

Clinical Information

Indicated Pain Conditions. Clinical conditions with pain in which a topical agent may have utility include both acute and chronic pain states. Acute conditions suitable for topical pharmacotherapeutic intervention include acute soft tissue injuries (e.g., sprains, strains, contusions), postsurgical pain, and acute herpes zoster (shingles). Chronic pain states appropriate for topical treatment include arthritic conditions and chronic peripheral neuropathies, such as PHN, diabetic polyneuropathy, idiopathic neuropathy, complex regional pain syndrome, stump pain, and other neuroma pains.

Medication Classes. Currently only a few topical medications are commercially available for the treatment of pain, including topical nonsteroidal antiinflammatory agents, capsaicin, and local anesthetics. However, several new topical drugs—using di-

TABLE 87-1. Topical versus transdermal drug delivery

	Topical	Transdermal
Application site	Skin: directly on painful skin	Skin: distant from painful region
Activity	Peripherally (soft tissue, nerve)	Systemically
Drug concentration	Insignificant	Necessary
Local side effects	No	Yes
Systemic side effects	No	Yes
Drug interaction	No	Yes

ings, with a new active medication ingredient, or both—are being investigated (at the time of this writing), and it is likely that they will prove efficacious in the not too distant future treatment of a variety of acute and chronic pain conditions. Several different topical formulations may be available within the same medication class, which may differ significantly with regard to efficacy and side effect profile. Such differences between topical drugs in the same class may differ in several important ways, including (a) the actual active medication being delivered; (b) the topical vehicle formulation's components, which affect skin penetration and drug delivery; (c) the application form in which the drug is available, such as ointment, gel, salve, or patch/plaster. Each of these three factors has important relevance with regard to the topical drug's efficacy and adverse events (Table 87-2).

NSAIDs

Nonsteroidal Antiinflammatory Drugs

Of all the drug classes, the nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drug (NSAID) class has the most studied and currently avail-

able different topical drug formulations that are commercially available or under investigation. Many different NSAIDs with vastly different vehicle formulations have been assessed in mostly acute pain syndromes and arthritic conditions.

Mechanism of Action

NSAIDs traditionally have been thought to have their primary mechanism of analgesic activity in the periphery, specifically via their inhibition of prostaglandin synthesis. However, a dissociation between the degree of pain relief of certain NSAIDs and their actual antiinflammatory effects suggests other important analgesic mechanisms of activity (1), including other peripheral effects, such as inhibition of the lipooxygenase pathway, inhibition of excitatory amino acids, and effects on G protein-mediated signal transduction (2).

Topical NSAIDs may also have direct effects on damaged and dysfunctional peripheral nerves. Topical NSAIDs theoretically could reduce primary afferent sensitization occurring as part of a localized abnormal neurogenic inflammatory response (3). An animal study of rabbit corneal nerve injury reported a significant reduction of abnormal neural activity and mechanical allodynia after application of topical diclofenac (4).

Clinical Trial Data

Acute Pain. Topical NSAID treatment has been studied for several clinical conditions associated with acute pain, including minor sports injury pain, postsurgical pain, and ophthalmic pain. A multicenter, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study of acute sports injury pain found significant reductions of pain over a 2-week period with a diclofenac patch/plaster (5). An open-label study observed a 60% reduction in pain with this diclofenac patch/plaster in traumatic sport and overload injuries (6). Similar controlled studies in acute soft tissue injuries revealed significant reductions in pain over the first 48 hours with an ibuprofen cream (7) and over 7

TABLE 87-2. Controlled and uncontrolled studies assessing the efficacy of topical drugs for the treatment of pain

Drug class	Agent	Arthritic pain (c/uc)		Acute pain (c/uc)		Neuropathic pain (c/uc)		
		Rheumatoid arthritis	Osteoarthritis	Soft tissue	Postsurgical	Acute herpes zoster	Postherpetic neuralgia	Diabetic neuropathy
Anesthetic	Diclofenac patch/plaster		+/	+/+				
	Diclofenac gel			/+				
	Diclofenac with hyaluronan		+/					
	Diclofenac with ether					+/+*	+/+*	
	Ibuprofen cream			-/				
	Ketoprofen gel			+/+				
	Piroxicam gel							
	Eltanac gel		+/		+/			
	Aspirin/ether		+/		+/	+/+*	+/+*	
	Lidocaine							
	Lidoderm patch						+/+	-/+
	Lidoderm gel						+/+	-/+
	Lidocaine/prilocaine							
	EMLA cream			+/**			-/	
	EMLA patch			+/**				
Non-anesthetic		M/	+/		+/		M/M	M/M
Other	Gel				+/		/+	/+

c/uc, controlled study(ies); EMLA, eutectic mixture of local anesthetics; M, mixed results; NSAIDs, nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs; uc, uncontrolled study(ies); +, positive results; -, negative results; *, single-session studies; **, pain associated with venipuncture, biopsy, and circumcision.

days with ketoprofen gel (8). An open-label uncontrolled study comparing several different topical gels for acute soft tissue injury pain observed that diclofenac gel and ketoprofen gel were similar in efficacy, whereas piroxicam gel was less effective (9).

A double-blind comparative study assessed piroxicam gel applied preoperatively to patients undergoing an inguinal repair, local anesthetic inguinal block, and no treatment and reported that both the topical NSAID gel and the nerve block similarly reduced pain scores, time to first analgesic, and total opiate consumption as compared to the no-treatment group (10). Double-blind controlled studies have assessed topical NSAIDs for the treatment of acute pain associated with traumatic corneal abrasions and found significant reductions in pain (10-12). A study has also reported significant pain reduction with topical diclofenac treatment for postoperative pain associated with phototherapeutic keratectomy (13).

Arthritic Pain. A large randomized, multicenter, double-blind, 4-week study compared topical etelna gel with oral diclofenac and placebo in patients with osteoarthritis of the knee and found that both active treatments were significantly better than placebo in reducing pain only in patients with severe symptoms, but that the number of gastrointestinal adverse reactions were three times higher in the oral NSAID group as compared to the topical NSAID group (14). Controlled studies demonstrated efficacy of a topical diclofenac in hyaluronan for the treatment of osteoarthritis (15-17). Placebo-controlled studies have reported significant reductions in pain with topical diclofenac plaster (patch) in patients with osteoarthritis of the knee (18), and inflammatory peri- and extraarticular rheumatologic diseases (19). After several days of diclofenac plaster application in patients with monolateral knee joint effusion, low levels of diclofenac were measurable in the synovial fluid without producing elevated serum levels (20). An open-label uncontrolled study reported topical flurbiprofen patches provided significantly better pain control as compared to oral diclofenac with significantly fewer gastrointestinal side effects after 2 weeks of treatment in patients with "soft-tissue rheumatism" (21).

Neuropathic Pain. A single-session, double-blind, crossover study reported significant pain reduction for the treatment of both acute herpes zoster and PHN with a topical diclofenac/diethyl ether mixture with no significant side effects (22). This same study reported that an indomethacin/diethyl ether topical mixture was not superior to placebo in a single-session protocol. Another single-session study observed significant pain reduction in patients suffering from PHN with hydrous stapes (topical patches) containing indomethacin, ketoprofen, or flurbiprofen (23). However, no long-term efficacy studies with topical NSAIDs have been published for the treatment of either acute herpes zoster or PHN. No studies have assessed the use of topical NSAIDs for other peripheral neuropathic pain conditions.

Aspirin

Although no commercially produced form of topical aspirin is available at the time of this writing, several studies have reported the results of compounded formulations of topical aspirin for the treatment of pain associated with herpes zoster.

Mechanism of Action

Like the topical NSAIDs, topical aspirin may alleviate pain by affecting the inflammatory response and, at least theoretically, in neuropathic pain states by reducing neurogenic inflammation.

Neuropathic Pain

A double-blind, placebo-controlled, single-session clinical study reported statistically significant pain relief in patients

with acute herpes zoster and PHN after application of a topical aspirin/diethyl mixture (24). In addition, several open-label studies have described pain reduction in PHN using topical mixtures of aspirin and chloroform or diethyl ether (25,26). A controlled study has assessed the long-term benefits and side effects with topical aspirin formulations.

Local Anesthetics

Over the past decade, two commercially produced forms of topical local anesthetics have extensively undergone the rigorous placebo-controlled clinical trials testing. Lidoderm gel, ar patches and EMLA (eutectic mixture of local anesthetics, 2.5% lidocaine and 2.5% prilocaine) cream and patch. To date, both products have proven efficacy for different clinical pain states. Lidoderm for peripheral neuropathic pains and EMLA for acute pains associated with invasive procedures, such as venipuncture. Other topical formulations of local anesthetics have also been reported for the treatment of acute pain states.

Mechanism of Action

Local anesthetic drugs applied topically are thought to provide pain relief by reducing ectopic discharges in superficial somatic nerves, which are damaged and dysfunctional in neuropathic pain states and are normally active in acute injury such as venipuncture. It is not necessary to produce a general anesthesia of the skin to produce clinically significant relief in chronic neuropathic pain states. Animal models of neuropathic pain have shown significant reductions in the allodynic, tonic, evoked, and ectopic activity in damaged peripheral nerve with local anesthetic concentrations dramatically below those which blocks impulse conduction (27,28). In addition, topical patch, such as the Lidoderm patch, has been shown to have an added benefit of protecting allodynic skin from mechanical stimulation and thereby of reducing an allodynic patient's pain (29,30).

Neuropathic Pain

A large multicenter, placebo-controlled, double-blind study reported significant pain relief with 4 weeks of lidocaine (Lidoderm) use in patients with long-standing PHN and mechanical allodynia (30). Another controlled trial in using an enriched enrollment crossover design, demonstrated that long-term lidocaine patch users (mean duration of use was 3.3 years; mean duration of PHN 7.3 years) preferred the lidocaine patch to the placebo patch, 78% versus 9% (31). In addition, several double-blind, placebo-controlled, single-session studies have reported Lidoderm, both the patch formulations, to be effective in significantly reducing pain of PHN without any significant side effects. Lidocaine serum levels after use of this gel and the patch formulation are an order of magnitude below antiarrhythmic serum levels and are thus very safe, even in patients with cardiac conditions (29,30,33).

A randomized controlled trial of topical lidocaine patches for the treatment of painful diabetic neuropathy showed clinically significant reductions in pain with active and placebo treatments in the vast majority of patients, but no statistical difference between the two treatments (BS, Gianis A, unpublished results, 1988). Of interest, a majority of subjects in this study continue to use the patch or gel in a compassionate use protocol with meaningful reductions in pain, even if they responded to placebo treatment in the controlled study. Anecdotal evidence also suggests this drug may be useful for the treatment of peripheral neuropathic pains, such as idiopathic polyneuropathy, painful mononeuropathy, stump pain, reflex sympathetic dystrophy, and painful HIV neuropathy (35,36).

Long-term efficacy appears to be maintained for this new topical lidocaine preparation. PHN and diabetic neuropathy patients who have applied Lidoderm for several years report continued pain relief, with some patients noticing a decrease in the size of the painful region and others needing to apply the topical medication less and less frequently. No significant acute or chronic side effects have been observed.

The other commercially available formulation of topical local anesthetic, EMLA, has failed to demonstrate efficacy superior to placebo (37).

Cute Pain

Controlled studies have reported EMLA cream applied under an occlusive dressing for 60 minutes reduces pain associated with venipuncture (38,39), intramuscular saline injections (40), spinal needle insertion (41), excisional biopsy or curettage with electrosurgery of cutaneous lesions (42), and pain from circumcision in neonates (43). A patch impregnated with EMLA is also shown to reduce pain associated with a skin biopsy in children (44) and venipuncture pain in adults (45).

A controlled comparative study of volunteers undergoing ravenous catheterization reported that liposome-encapsulated tetracaine provided more effective pain relief than EMLA cream after 60 minutes' application time, although the tetracaine also caused more erythema than the EMLA (46). Topical paracaine was shown in a double-blind study to reduce the pain after photorefractive keratectomy (47). A double-blind study reported equally effective pain reduction with the use of topical bupivacaine-adrenaline-cocaine and topical tetracaine-enaine-cocaine mixtures for pain associated with wound dressing (48). A double-blind study assessed the efficacy of topical anesthetics for pain associated with suturing lacerations in children and concluded that topical prilocaine-phenylephrine or tetracaine-phenylephrine (tetraphen) was as effective as cal tetracaine-adrenaline-cocaine (49).

Capsaicin

Mechanism of Action

Capsaicin is an over-the-counter drug composed of an extract of chili peppers. It has been postulated that capsaicin actively stimulates and then depletes substance P from nociceptive primary afferents and thus may produce pain relief in chronic pain states. However, this physiologic activity has not been definitively proved to be the mechanism of action of currently available capsaicin products. An animal study of experimental polyarthritis has noted that pretreatment with capsaicin significantly attenuated joint swelling and radiologic and histologic measures of arthritic changes, suggesting that capsaicin may directly suppress inflammation (50). Moreover, capsaicin produces a counterirritant effect in a majority of patients by causing a mild to severe burning on application, and this may also be a potential therapeutic pain mechanism. The use of this commonly occurring burning on application, however, in controlled trials of capsaicin should be interpreted with caution since both subject and researcher are unblinded to this occurs.)

Neuropathic Pain

Topical capsaicin has been studied in PHN and painful diabetic neuropathy with mixed results. In PHN, several studies have reported reductions in pain (51-54), whereas others have not (55). Similarly, controlled studies in painful diabetic neuropathy have also resulted in both negative and positive findings. A randomized controlled trial of 0.075% capsaicin in painful diabetic neuropathy showed no benefit (55). Another controlled study using 0.075% capsaicin in painful diabetic neuropathy

reported improvement in pain with capsaicin, although an intent-to-treat analysis was not performed (56). A controlled trial using an active placebo (a topical substance that also produced burning on application but had no pain-relieving capabilities) reported no difference between capsaicin and this active placebo in patients with a variety of painful polyneuropathies (57). One small controlled study reported topical capsaicin reduced the pain of postmastectomy syndrome (58).

Unfortunately, currently available formulations of capsaicin have been disappointing clinically as an analgesic agent for all neuropathic pains (59). Currently, most authorities rarely prescribe the drug for the treatment of neuropathic pain due to its overall poor efficacy and the high proportion of patients who complain of a worsening of their pain with drug application.

Arthritis Pain

Two controlled studies have demonstrated efficacy and safety for the use of topical capsaicin in the treatment of arthritis pain. A small double-blind, placebo-controlled study concluded that capsaicin significantly reduced hand pain from osteoarthritis but not pain from rheumatoid arthritis (60). However, a large double-blind study of arthritic knee pain reported significant pain relief in both rheumatoid arthritis and osteoarthritis, with more relief reported by rheumatoid arthritis subjects (61).

Clonidine

At the time of writing, no topical clonidine product is commercially available. However, a new formulation of a topical clonidine gel is being studied for a variety of neuropathic pain states.

Mechanism of Action

Clonidine is an α_2 -adrenergic partial agonist. Alpha-2 receptors are autoreceptors located on the sympathetic nerves' terminals, which when activated inhibit their release of norepinephrine. Several lines of evidence suggest an abnormal adrenergic sensitivity in peripheral neuropathic pain states. For instance, locally infused adrenaline results in a worsening of pain and allodynia in patients with reflex sympathetic dystrophy (62) and PHN (63). In addition, animal models of peripheral neuropathic pain have shown that injured neurons are sensitive to adrenergic activity, that is, an increase in ectopic impulse generation occurs in response to sympathetic agonists and to activation of postganglionic sympathetic efferent axons (64). Moreover, this adrenergic sensitivity appears to be an inherent property of the injured somatic peripheral nerve (65). Thus, application of clonidine topically may reduce release of norepinephrine from sympathetic nerve terminals, thereby alleviating the abnormal ectopic firing resulting from the dysfunctional nerve's adrenergic sensitivity, and, at least theoretically, result in clinically meaningful reductions in pain and allodynia.

Neuropathic Pains

No controlled studies have been performed using a topical form of clonidine, at the time of this writing. However, uncontrolled pilot studies have been performed assessing different concentrations of this new formulation of topical clonidine gel for the treatment of PHN, complex regional pain syndrome type I, and painful diabetic neuropathy. These open-label studies have observed improvement in pain and hyperalgesia in some patients (66). Controlled trials with topical clonidine gel are being planned.

One uncontrolled case series assessed the efficacy of transdermal clonidine patch (Catapres) in four patients with "sympathetically maintained pain" and two with "sympathetically independent pain" (67). This series observed that the patients with sympathetically maintained pain obtained complete relief

of hyperalgesia only in the localized skin region under the patch but no change in the spontaneous ongoing pain, whereas no pain relief at all was noted by the two patients with sympathetically independent pain.

CONCLUSIONS

Theoretically, topical drugs have many clinically relevant advantages over other pharmacotherapeutic drug delivery systems, such as oral, transdermal, and intrathecally delivered drugs. By applying a drug directly to the skin, where it penetrates and acts directly at a site of pain generation without the need for systemic activity or invasive procedure, topical medications have the promise of producing pain relief with few side effects and little risk and cost. In the past, the question plaguing topical drug delivery has been whether clinically meaningful degrees of pain relief can be achieved with topical administration. A variety of controlled clinical trials have demonstrated efficacy for a variety of topical drugs and topical formulations, such as NSAIDs for treatment of acute soft tissue injury and arthritis and topical local anesthetics for treatment of chronic peripheral neuropathies. The use of acute pain associated with invasive procedures. There are many new looks bright for topical drug delivery, with both acute and chronic pain conditions. Because of their efficacy, safety, quick onset, and ease of use, topical medications should be considered first-line agents for the treatment of

REFERENCES

- McCormack K, Brune K. The anti-inflammatory effect of topical nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs. A survey of their anti-inflammatory effect. *Drugs* 1991;41:533-547.
- Cashman JN. The mechanism of action of NSAIDs in analgesia. *Drugs* 1996;52(Suppl 5):13-23.
- Rowbotham MC. Topical analgesics. In: Fields HL, Liebeskind JC, eds. *Progress in pain research*. Seattle: IASP Press, 1993.
- Beureman RW, McDonald MB, Zhang J. Diclofenac sodium attenuates neural activity after peripheral nerve injury in rabbits. *J Refract Surg* 1996;12:783-791.
- Galer BS, Rowbotham MC, Perander J. Topical diclofenac patch significantly reduces pain associated with acute minor sports injuries: results of a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled, multicenter study. *J Pain Sign* 2000;19:287-294.
- Jenoure P, Segesser B, Luhti U, et al. A trial with a topical diclofenac plaster in minor sports injuries. *Drugs Exp Clin Res* 1993;19:125-131.
- Campbell J, Dunn T. Evaluation of topical ibuprofen in the treatment of acute ankle sprains. *J Accidental Emerg* 1994;11:178-182.
- Airaksinen O, Venalainen J, Pietiläinen T. Ketoprofen versus placebo gel in the treatment of acute soft tissue injury. *J Clin Pharmacol Ther* 1993;31:561-563.
- Patel RK, Leswell PF. Comparison of ketoprofen, piroxicam, diclofenac in the treatment of acute soft-tissue injury in general practice. *Clin Ther* 1996;18:497-507.
- O'Hanlon JJ, McClean G, Muldoon T. Preoperative application of piroxicam gel compared to a local anaesthetic field block for postoperative analgesia. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand* 1996;40:715-718.
- Jayamanne DG, Fitt AW, Dayan M, et al. The effectiveness of topical diclofenac in relieving discomfort following traumatic corneal abrasions. *Eye* 1997;11:79-83.
- Kaiser PK, Pineda R. A study of topical nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drops and no pressure patching in the treatment of corneal abrasions. *Ophthalmology* 1997;104:1353-1359.
- Forster W, Ratkay I, Krueger R, et al. Topical diclofenac sodium after excimer laser phototherapeutic keratectomy. *J Refract Surg* 1997;13:311-313.
- Sandelin J, Harilainen A, Crone H, et al. Local NSAIDs in the treatment of osteoarthritis of the knee. A study comparing etelac with oral diclofenac and *Scand J Rheumatol* 1997;26:287-292.
- Russell AL. The use of HYAL-AT2101 and diclofenac in the treatment of osteoarthritis. *R Soc Med Round Table Ser* 1999.
- Roth S, Vanzielegem M. A double-blind, randomized, controlled clinical study to compare the safety and efficacy of HYAL-AT2101 with placebo gel in the treatment of pain associated with osteoarthritis while on oral NSAID therapy. *Rheumatol Eur* 1995;24(Suppl 3):322.
- Roth SH. A controlled clinical investigation of 3% 2.5% sodium hyaluronate topical gel in the treatment of pain in chronic oral NSAID users with osteoarthritis. *Tissue React* 1995;17:129-132.
- Dreiser RL, Tisne-Camus M. DHEP plasters as a topical treatment of knee osteoarthritis: a double-blind placebo-controlled study. *Drugs Exp Clin Res* 1993;19:107-123.
- Galeazzi M, Marcolongo R. A placebo-controlled study of the efficacy and tolerability of a nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory DHEP plaster, in inflammatory peri- and extra-articular rheumatological diseases. *Drugs Exp Clin Res* 1993;19:107-111.
- Gallachia G, Marcolongo R. Pharmacokinetics of hydroxyethylpyrrolidone (DHEP) plasters in patients with lateral knee joint effusion. *Drugs Exp Clin Res* 1993;19:107-111.
- Marten M. Efficacy and tolerability of a topical NSAID (transcutaneous flurbiprofen) and oral diclofenac in the treatment of soft-tissue rheumatism. *Clin Rheumatol* 1997;17:107-111.
- DeBenedittis G, Lorenzetti A. Topical aspirin/diethyl ether versus indomethacin and diclofenac/diethyl ether for acute herpetic neuralgia and postherpetic neuralgia: a double-blind crossover placebo-controlled study. *Pain* 1996;66:383-390.
- Morimoto M, Inamori K, Hyodo M. The effect of intrathecal stipe for postherpetic neuralgia—particularly in patients with chloroform-aspirin solution. *Pain* 1990;43(Suppl 5):5.
- DeBenedittis G, Lorenzetti A. Topical aspirin/diethyl ether versus indomethacin and diclofenac/diethyl ether for acute herpetic neuralgia and postherpetic neuralgia: a double-blind crossover placebo-controlled study. *Pain* 1996;66:383-390.
- DeBenedittis G, Besana F, Lorenzetti A. A new topic for acute herpetic neuralgia and post-herpetic neuralgia: aspirin/diethyl ether mixture. An open label study plus a controlled study. *Pain* 1992;48:383-390.
- King RB. Concerning the management of pain associated with herpes zoster and of postherpetic neuralgia. *Pain* 1989;39:383-390.
- Tanelian DL, MacIver MB. Analgesic concentrations suppress tonic A-delta and C fiber discharge produced by injury. *Anesthesiology* 1991;74:934-936.
- Chabal C, Russell LC, Burchiel KJ. The effect of lidocaine, tocainide, and mexiletine on spontaneous fibers originating in rat sciatic neuromas. *Pain* 1989;39:383-390.
- Rowbotham MC, Davies PJ, Verkempinck CM, et al. A patch: double-blind controlled study of a new treatment for postherpetic neuralgia. *Pain* 1996;65:39-45.
- Rowbotham MC, Davies PJ, Galer BS. Randomized, placebo controlled multicenter study assessing the efficacy of lidocaine patches in 126 patients with postherpetic neuralgia. *IASP Press*, 1996(abst).
- Galer BS, Rowbotham MC, Perander J, et al. Topical patch relieves postherpetic neuralgia more effectively than vehicle topical patch: results of an enriched enrollment study. *Pain* 1999;80:533-538.
- Rowbotham MC, Fields HL. Topical lidocaine relieves post-herpetic neuralgia. *Pain* 1989;38:297-302.
- Rowbotham MC, Davies PS, Fields HL. Topical lidocaine relieves postherpetic neuralgia. *Ann Neurol* 1995;37:242-244.
- Rowbotham MC, Davies PJ, Verkempinck CM, et al. A patch: double-blind controlled study of a new treatment for postherpetic neuralgia. *Pain* 1996;65:39-45.
- Galer BS. Topical lidocaine relieves peripheral neuropathic pain. *Neurology* 1995;45(Suppl 4):A366.
- Wang A, Dorfman D, Dalton A, et al. Treatment of peripheral neuropathy in HIV infection with a topical agent. A double-blind study using 5% lidocaine. Presented at the 37th Annual Meeting of the American Society of HIV Infection, 1998.
- Wang A, Watson CPN, Nevin K, et al. EMLA cream relieves pain caused by postherpetic neuralgia: a double-blind placebo-controlled study. *Am Pain Soc* 1996;A111(abst)

41. Hallen B, Carlsson P, Uppfeldt A. Clinical study of lignocaine-prilocaine cream to relieve the pain of venipuncture. *Br J Anaesth* 1985;57:326-328.
42. Hallen B, Olsson GL, Uppfeldt A. Pain free venipuncture. *Anaesthesia* 1984;39:969-972.
43. Hämelstein DP, Cnaan A, Blackall CS, et al. Topical application of lidocaine-prilocaine (EMLA) cream reduces the pain of intramuscular infiltration of saline solution. *J Pediatr* 1996;129:718-721.
44. Sharma SK, Gajraj NM, Sidawi JE, et al. EMLA cream effectively reduces the pain of spinal needle insertion. *Reg Anesth* 1996;21:551-564.
45. Gupta AK, Sibbald RG. Eutectic lidocaine/prilocaine 5% cream and patch may provide satisfactory analgesia for excisional biopsy or curettage with electrosurgery of cutaneous lesions. A randomized, controlled, parallel group study. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 1996;35:419-423.
46. Taddio A, Stevens B, Craig K, et al. Efficacy and safety of lidocaine-prilocaine cream for pain during circumcision. *N Engl J Med* 1997;336:1197-1201.
47. deWaardvanderSpek FB, Mulder PG, Oranje AP. Prilocaine/lidocaine patch as a local premedication for skin biopsy in children. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 1997;37:418-421.
48. Vaghadia H, al Ahdal OA, Nevin K. EMLA patch for intravenous cannulation in adult surgical outpatients. *Can J Anaesth* 1997;44:798-802.
49. Hung OR, Comeau L, Riley MR, et al. Comparative topical anaesthesia of EMLA and liposome-encapsulated tetracaine. *Can J Anaesth* 1997;44:707-711.
50. Shahinian L Jr, Jain S, Jager RD, et al. Dilute topical proparacaine for pain relief after photorefractive keratectomy. *Ophthalmology* 1997;104:1327-1332.
51. Kuhn M, Rossi SO, Plummer JL, et al. Topical anaesthesia for minor lacerations: MAC versus TAC. *Med J Aust* 1996;164:277-280.
52. Smith GA, Strausbaugh SD, Harbeck-Weber C, et al. New non-cocaine containing topical anesthetics compared with tetracaine-adrenaline-cocaine during repair of lacerations. *Pediatrics* 1997;100:825-830.
53. Cruwys SC, Garrett NE, Kidd BL. Sensory denervation with capsaicin attenuates inflammation and nociception in arthritic rats. *Neurosci Lett* 1995;193:205-207.
54. Bernstein JE, Korman NJ, Bickers DR, et al. Topical capsaicin treatment of chronic postherpetic neuralgia. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 1989;21:265-270.
55. Watson CP, Tyler KL, Bickers DR, et al. A randomized vehicle-controlled trial of topical capsaicin in the treatment of postherpetic neuralgia. *Clin Ther* 1993;15:510-526.
56. Bruxelle J, Luu M, Kong-a-Siou D. *Randomized double-blind study of topical capsaicin for treatment of postherpetic neuralgia*. Seattle: IASP Press, 1993:187(abst).
57. Drake HF, Harries AJ, Gamester RE, et al. Randomised double-blind study of topical capsaicin for treatment of postherpetic neuralgia. *Pain* 1990;(Suppl 5):S58.
58. Chad DA, Aronin N, Lundstrom R, et al. Does capsaicin relieve the pain of diabetic neuropathy? *Pain* 1990;2:387-388.
59. Capsaicin Study Group. Effect of treatment with capsaicin on daily activities of patients with painful diabetic neuropathy. *Diabetes Care* 1992;15:159-165.
60. Low PA, Opfer-Gehrking TL, Dyck PJ, et al. Double-blind, placebo-controlled study of the application of capsaicin cream in chronic distal painful polyneuropathy. *Pain* 1995;62: 163-168.
61. Watson CPN, Evans RJ. The postmastectomy pain syndrome and topical capsaicin: a randomized trial. *Pain* 1992;51:375-379.
62. Watson CPN. Topical capsaicin as an adjuvant analgesic. *J Pain Symptom Manage* 1994;9:425-433.
63. McCarthy GM, McCarty DJ. Effect of topical capsaicin in the therapy of painful osteoarthritis of the hands. *J Rheumatol* 1992;19:604-607.
64. Deal CL, Schnitzer TJ, Lipstein E, et al. Treatment of arthritis with topical capsaicin: a double-blind trial. *Clin Ther* 1991;13:383-395.
65. Arnold JMO, Teasell RW, MacLeod AP, et al. Increased venous alpha-adrenoreceptor responsiveness in patients with reflex sympathetic dystrophy. *Ann Intern Med* 1993;118:619-621.
66. Choi B, Rowbotham MC. Effect of adrenergic receptor activation on post-herpetic neuralgia pain and sensory disturbances. *Pain* 1997;69:55-63.
67. Jensen TS. Mechanisms of neuropathic pain. In: Campbell JN, ed. *Pain 1996: an updated review*. Seattle: IASP Press, 1996:77-86.
68. Rubin G, Kaspi T, Rappaport ZH, et al. Adrenosensitivity of injured afferent neurons does not require the presence of postganglionic sympathetic terminals. *Pain* 1997;72:183-191.
69. Galer BS, Devers A. The treatment of neuropathic pain with topical clonidine, a pilot study. *Am Pain Soc* 1998(abst).
70. Davis KD, Treede RD, Raja SN, et al. Topical application of clonidine relieves hyperalgesia in patients with sympathetically maintained pain. *Pain* 1991;47:309-317.